

GEMS OF AMERICA.

Mining for Precious Stones in This Country.

Diamonds, Emeralds, Opals and Sapphires Among the Number. Where and How They Are Found—A Growing Industry.

Although nearly all known varieties of precious stones are found in the United States, there has until recently been little effort made to search for them on an extensive and systematic scale, the indications usually not promising a sufficient return for any great outlay of capital. But there has lately been an advance in this direction, for whereas, in 1880 mining for gems was carried on only in two states, there were mined during the last year the following precious stones: Tourmaline in Maine, corals in North Carolina, turquoise in New Mexico, sapphires in Montana, and opals in Washington, Idaho and Oregon. Diamonds are found scattered over the country, but up to date never in commercially paying quantities. The two chief diamond belts are along the southern base of the Alleghenies from Virginia to Georgia, and along the western base of the Cascade and Sierra Madre mountains in northern California. There have also been unconfirmed reports of scattered corals found in other localities, and within a year or two considerable excitement was aroused by the reported occurrence in central Kentucky closely resembling the diamond-bearing earth of the African mines. But it was afterward found there were important differences between the deposit and the Kimberley clay, the most vital of which was that the Kentucky strip bore no diamonds.

Sapphire is found chiefly among the crystalline rocks along the base of the Appalachian mountains, from Chester, Mass., to southern Georgia. The largest sapphire crystal ever found, which was five times larger than any other known crystal, is now in the collection of Amherst college. It suffered somewhat in the disastrous fire of 1892. Turquoise is one of the most important gem products of the country. It is found in several localities in New Mexico, Nevada and Arizona. Some is also obtained in Fresno county, Cal. During the last two years turquoise has been actively mined for in New Mexico, reopening some of the mines originally worked by the Indians, and they have found turquoise in color to the finest Persian material. Stones have been found in these localities weighing up to sixty karats, some of which were sold for about \$4,000, and it is now possible for the first time in the last half century to match a perfect turquoise necklace.

Turquoise has always been known as an unstable gem. Even the finest Persian stones are liable to change occasionally with scarcely any warning, the alteration probably being due to the turquoise coming in contact with acid exhalations from the skin or with fatty acids or alkalis in soap, although wearers of turquoise are especially warned to remove the rings while washing their hands. The sale of American turquoise during the year 1891 probably exceeded \$100,000, and for 1892 \$175,000, and a greater amount for 1893.

Garnets are also found throughout nearly the same region as the turquoise. One of their peculiarities is that the most of them are ready mined for the prospector, who find them dug out around the ant hills and scorpion holes. They are collected by the Indians and British and sold to the Indian traders. Some of the exceptionally fine ones have brought \$50 or \$100, though the one-karat stones seldom bring over \$5. The garnet output from this region amounts to about \$5,000 in cut stones annually. Opals and amethysts are the two other precious stones of the greatest importance in this country. In the new opal beds of Oregon \$20,000 worth of the gems were obtained in 1892.—Washington Post.

She Couldn't Wait.

Lady—I want to sit for a picture. Artist—I shall be very glad to put you, if you will wait a week, until I finish the one I am at work on now.

Lady—Oh, my. I couldn't wait that long. I promised to be home to dinner at five o'clock.

That's the trouble with some people, they have no time to wait for results. Some women will take a dose or so of Dr. Pierce's Favorite Prescription and expect to feel well immediately. True some do find marvellously speedy effects from a single dose, but chronic diseases, which have had possession of the system for years, cannot be cured in a day. Persevered with it and it will cure you, ladies, of all the ills you suffer from. Guaranteed to cure in all cases of nervousness, spasms, soreness, irregularities, painful periods, and kindred ailments.

IVORY SOAP
—IT FLOATS—
FORTY MILLION Cakes Yearly.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE DAIRY COW.

An Abstract of an Address before the Students of the Ohio State University, by Prof. C. S. Hamble, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

The early history of domesticated cattle, we know but little. Boyd Dawkins, an Englishman, and Reetz Meyer, a German, have devoted considerable research to the history of the European species. Two groups of cattle are commonly referred to by naturalists, *Bos taurus*, the humped cattle of India, and *Bos taurus*, those lacking the hump. These species differ radically in numerous important respects and according to Darwin "there can hardly be a doubt notwithstanding the adverse opinion of some naturalists that the humped and non-humped cattle must be ranked as specifically distinct." The common cattle of Europe and America are generally referred to as of the type *taurus*.

However, the researches of Dawkins and Reetz Meyer have shown a number of peculiarities in the evolution of cattle, says Darwin, *Bos primigenius* and *Bos longifrons* are the most important. *Primigenius*, a large, magnificent beast, was domesticated in Switzerland during the Neolithic period, and existed as wild animals in Caesar's time. *Longifrons* was a very distinct species of small size, with short body and fine legs. It was also the commonest form in a domesticated condition in western Europe during the earliest part of the Neolithic period. "On the whole we may conclude, more especially from the researches of Boyd Dawkins, that European cattle are descended from a single stock, and that the improbability in this fact, for the genus *Bos* readily yields to domestication." From these two species, it is assumed by some of the greatest investigators of the subject, have arisen our domesticated breeds of today.

From these early established species it is reasonable to assume our present numerous different breeds or varieties have descended from *Bos taurus* and *Bos longifrons*—the one being the ancestor of the various quagga breeds which are destroying their loved ones, by force of numbers, and the other of our domesticated breeds of today.

The writer has secured a list of 118 so-called breeds, more or less described in 1887.

It would be impossible to determine the range or varieties which have occurred in very early times, but it is probable that many of the changes of climate and food materially assisted in producing variation, a more important factor was the breeder himself.

Early works on agriculture devote but little attention to the stock raising, and one can find only the most limited reference to such a thing as breeds of cattle, while many pages are devoted to the culture of crops. In 1773 J. W. Gort (John Woodville) wrote as follows concerning the cow: "The best sort is the large Dutch cow, that brings two calves at one birth and gives ordinarily two gallons of milk at one milking, and they have found that quagga breed in color to the finest Persian material. Stones have been found in these localities weighing up to sixty karats, some of which were sold for about \$4,000, and it is now possible for the first time in the last half century to match a perfect turquoise necklace."

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It is very probable that a century ago a coarseness existed in raising dairy cattle, tending towards beefing, and would not meet with favor in a dairy type today. The conditions of care and management and the lack of knowledge of laws of breeding at that time would justify such a conclusion. Animals were from necessity more exposed to open and inclement weather, and a great deal of coarse food was used in maintaining body heat and nutrition in that time. It might be converted into milk where body heat is properly protected. Today, in time of peace and quiet, the occupation of the breeder will permit of systematic breeding upward. In the early days of European history, constant wars and strife prevented very extended attempts at breeding in a systematic manner, so that it is not reasonable to expect that anything remarkable was accomplished in the way of intensifying the milking habit.

In this country, however, the improvement has been an important one, as is demonstrated in numerous ways. Of the prominent dairy breeds, the Relief in Six Hours.

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Dec. 15, 1893.

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OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Glimpse at the Educational Work Done There.

Some of the New Features as Outlined in the New Catalogue—Departments and Lectures.

Eighty members of the faculty and 800 students are listed in the annual catalogue of the Ohio State university for the current year. The catalogue is a voluminous pamphlet of nearly 200 pages, and is probably the most carefully prepared and comprehensive of any found in such publications.

Of the 800 students who took actual class work during the year now closing, 118 were young women, the attendance of whom has grown until it is now second only to that of the total number of students. The records at the university show that the majority of these young women entered either the arts or the philosophical course. Their studies were not all confined to these lines, however, for five young women took the scientific course, one studied engineering and one will be graduated next June from the course in pharmacy.

The interest which the students are taking in practical affairs is distinctly in evidence at the university, where the young women pupils are evincing a decided inclination to break the environments of custom and seek new opportunities of intellectual training.

Eighty-three of the students of the university are in their senior year, and those of them who are successful in passing the first term examinations will be graduated in June. Ninety of the eighty-three, or nearly one-fourth, are young women. Seven students are taking the course preparatory to the study of medicine, forty-six are studying pharmacy, sixteen veterinary medicine, seventy-eight agriculture, and there are eleven each in the courses of mining, clay-working, and dairying.

The law department has sixty-five students, twelve of whom will be graduated this year. A glance at the list of students as printed in the catalogue shows that they come from almost all parts of the country. Ohio naturally furnishes the larger part of the attendance, but there are pupils from Colorado, Wisconsin, Michigan, Wyoming, New York, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, California and a number from the foreign continent.

The faculty of thirty members is divided, in relation to rank and position, into thirty-seven professors, one associate professor, eight assistant professors, twenty-eight assistants, three lecturers, one curator and one librarian. Many of these instructors are men widely known in the lines of their special study, and some of them have distinction in both American and European circles.

A number of new departments of instruction at the university appear for the first time in the catalogue this year. Among them are the course preparatory to the study of medicine, the course in dairying, the course in clay working and the course in election and oratory. Hereafter the course in dairying will begin each year in the first Wednesday following the 1st of January, and will continue 12 weeks. Butter making, as practiced in the dairy farm, and in the creamery, is thoroughly taught, and the student performs all the necessary operations from the selection of the cow to the production of the finished product.

The course in election and oratory, which also appears for the first time in the catalogue, has been a department of the university since last September. The study of the vocal organs and muscles, with appropriate exercises, constitutes the first part of the instruction, while the pupil advances, they are given a wide variety of education and training in all that goes to make election and oratory one of the noblest of the practical problems of industry.

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[Sept. 22, '92-11]

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CORRECT SCIENTIFIC NAMES

The Recent Reforms in Botanical Nomenclature Explained by Prof. Kuhnemann, of the Ohio State University.

The scientific name of a plant or an animal is supposed to be unchanging and unchangeable—a name that is the same the world over, known to all scholars or educated people, and in the Latin form, whether the language of the speaker or writer be English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Japanese, and such it should be without exception.

Yet a violation is found, for example in the generic name of our histories. The name of this genus of forest trees as given in the manuals used in schools and colleges is *Quercus*. Consulting more recent publications the name *Hicoria* is found instead. Which is correct? The name *Hicoria* was given by Rafinesque in 1820. The name *Quercus* was introduced by Nuttall ten years later, namely in 1818. *Hicoria* had not been used previously. It was therefore a legitimate name to apply, and should without question be retained. It is only because of the disapproval of Rafinesque's generic name, he is quite excusable for proposing another. But later botanists who took up his name, rejecting the one that had been first given, are not at all excusable. They are thereby destroying the stability of nomenclature. Preoccupation of the name should be the only ground for changing after it has been published. A name may be ill-suited, may refer to a character that does not exist, may indicate some quality possessed by another species in a higher degree, or may, as we heard a literal meaning, be wholly misleading, yet any or all of these reasons combined will not warrant a change from the original.

If we grant the right to change for one reason, we can be justly claimed for another, and another without end. If we grant one botanist a right to change a name, another and another, without end, must be given the same license. This precludes stability—the one thing to be attained in scientific nomenclature and without which really it can not be a nomenclature.

This subject has been thoroughly discussed by the botanists during the last few years, and almost without exception the same conclusion has been reached, namely, that however inconvenient and distasteful it may be to throw aside many names that have been used for so long, and to-day we should consistently apply the principle of priority. This will result in absolute stability, so far at least as the specific name is concerned.

For example, Linnaeus gave the name "dioecious" (1753) to our species of Kentucky coffee-tree, that name should remain even if he called it in the wrong genus—which he did, for he called it *Hamamelis dioica*. It should have been placed in the genus *Gymnocladus*, and this Linnaeus did in 1848. But he unjustifiably coined another specific name for it, and for many years the name *Hamamelis dioica* has been used. It is already well known in this case, that it has received a specific name at the hands of Linnaeus, and to change which is no legitimate reason can be given. In 1863 Koch rejected the Linnaean specific name and gave it in the form it is, or should now be, namely, *Gymnocladus dioica* (L.) Karst. By citing the two authors as above, it is meant that the one in parentheses (Linnaeus) in this case, gave the specific name, and the one following (Koch) in the case here given is responsible for the combination which indicates its generic status.

It is this kind of specific name which is absolutely unchangeable, except in the single case noted, namely when it has already been applied to some other plant of that genus. If a plant has been introduced and placed in any genus it can be replaced without losing its identity or history. Or, if the judgment of botanists as to the limitation of any genus changes, the specific name will be transferred accordingly without change. It is evident that a strict and uniform application of the principle of priority will in no way prevent a readjustment of the views as to specific, varietal, generic, or critical limitations, and diagnosis with further development of knowledge in the line of systematic botany.

In examining the history of the scientific name of an interesting American tree, the *Sassafras*, we find that Linnaeus in 1753 applied the binomial *Laureus sassafras*. Salisbury in 1796 proposed the name *Laurea varifolia*, which would have been quite acceptable had not the plant already been named. In 1834 Nees von Esenbeck transferred the species to the genus *Sassafras*, but he manufactured a new specific name, *Sassafras officinale*, which American botanists have until recently been using. In 1887 Karsten restored the original specific name, which happens to be a duplicate of the generic name. The name in this form is not only a needless redundancy, but it is also a violation of the principle of priority. Really after one understands the reason for saying *Sassafras sassafras* (L.) Karst, his prejudice or sentiment, perhaps his laziness, gracefully yields, to no detriment, it must be confessed, and to the great gain of those who are yet to learn scientific names.

It must not be supposed that all the recently known names of plants are to be changed. Indeed no great fraction of them as given in the extant manuals are incorrect, though the total number of changes that have been required, is considerable.

When this matter is fully understood I know of no quarter where serious objection to the accomplished reform will likely come. It is expected that a few who have learned scientific names many years ago will decide that they do not wish to be worried by having to unlearn or relearn anything of this kind. But on second thought even they will perhaps admit that the great desirability of a stable nomenclature and prefer, after all, that beginners should have the opportunity of learning names that will hereafter remain the same.

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